GEOGRAPHIC SCHOOL BULLETINS

THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC SOCIETY, WASHINGTON 6, D.C.

NOVEMBER 9, 1959, VOLUME 38, NUMBER 6 . . . *To Know This World, Its Life*

NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC PHOTOGRAPHER JOHN E. FLETCHER

FLAGMAKERS stitch stars and stripes to meet demand for new versions of Old Glory

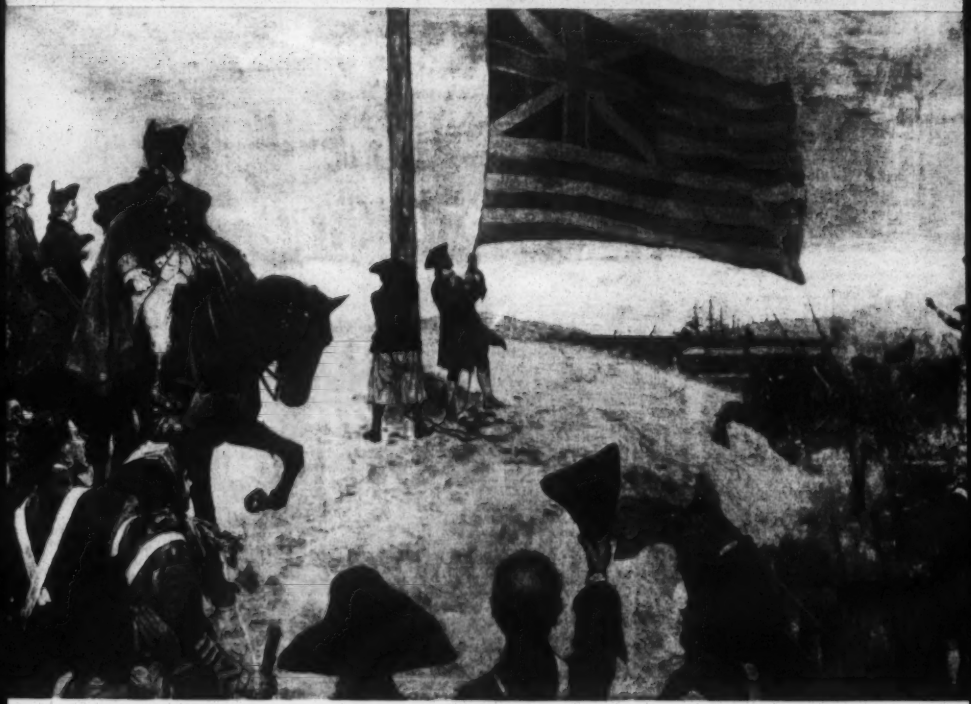
A NEW CONSTELLATION LIGHTS THE FLAG

also—

- Alaska Children Describe 49th State
- American Teacher in Moscow
- Rice—Vital Crop of Asia

UMI

is a nonprofit educational and scientific society established for the increase and diffusion of geographic knowledge.



63 PAINTING BY CLYDE O. DELAND

The birth records of the first United States flag are lost, but scholars now rule out the popular legend of Betsy Ross. They suggest that Francis Hopkinson, a signer of the Declaration of Independence and a member of the Continental Navy Board, may have participated, with others, in the design. The Stars and Stripes flew from the American ship *Ranger* (below), to receive a thundering cannon salute from a French fleet, its first recognition by a world power. The Navy had a near monopoly on the flag in its infancy. The Army did not adopt it officially until more than half a century

PAINTING BY EDWARD MORAN, COURTESY U. S. NAVAL ACADEMY MUSEUM

UMI

New States starred in the drama of *Old Glory*

N.G.S. PHOTOGRAPHER B. ANTHONY STEWART

NEXT VETERANS DAY, school children will pledge allegiance to another Old Glory. A new flag will fly over America's homes and will identify its aircraft carriers, scientific outposts, and missile bases around the globe.

For the second time in a year, President Eisenhower has proclaimed a change in the flag. The first came when Alaskans hailed the 49-star banner which marked their entrance into the Union. Then Hawaiians cheered the 50-star flag which signals their statehood. Its nine staggered rows of six and five stars each on the blue field will become official on Independence Day, 1960.

This is the 27th such change in the Star-Spangled Banner since the United States became a nation. The 48-star flag first waved in 1912 when New Mexico and Arizona got their stars.

The pomp and ceremony in the stately green-draped Cabinet Room of the White House when the President showed the latest flags for the first time contrast sharply with the humble beginnings of our national standard. Meeting in Philadelphia in June, 1777, the Continental Congress casually dropped in among routine matters of the morning this bill: "Resolved That the Flag of the united states be 13 stripes alternate red and white, that the Union be 13 stars white in a blue field representing a new constellation." The curious rendition of United States with small initial letters is just as it appears in the hand-written resolution prepared by the secretary. To him, apparently, the States were not yet a nation.

Congress failed to specify the arrangement of the stars and stripes. Some flagmakers put the stars in a circle, some put them in rows. Some changed the colors. Many designs were possible; many were used. So many different flags put to sea during the Revolution that even the patriot Benjamin Franklin, abroad to recruit support for the American cause, was confused. He wrote that the flag showed stripes not only of red and white, but of blue.

Actually the life history of the American flag begins before that fateful June 14, 1777, now memorialized as Flag Day. The story reflects the growth of the nation from 13 feeble colonies to a world power.

In the uneasy period following the first clashes with the English troops at Lexington and Concord, the Americans hoped, not for revolution, but only to right the wrongs they felt George III had done them. So they designed a flag that bespoke both their own unity—13 red and white stripes for the 13 colonies—and loyalty to the Crown—Great Britain's emblem in the upper left-hand corner. Below, George Washington, atop Prospect Hill near Boston, raises this Grand Union flag at the birth of the Continental Army, January 1, 1776. Six months later the Declaration of Independence tumbled America into the Revolution.

GEOGRAPHIC SCHOOL BULLETINS Copyright © 1959 by the National Geographic Society, Melville Bell Grosvenor, President. Published each week during school months by the School Service Division, Ralph Gray, Chief. Assistants: Arthur P. Miller, Jr., Frank Sartwell, Katherine Crapster, Liva Baker. Entered as second class matter, Washington, D.C. International copyright. All rights reserved. Rates: United States, $2.00 for 30 issues (one school year); Canada, $2.25; elsewhere, $2.50. U. S. only, 3 years (90 issues), $5.00. The National Geographic Society is a nonprofit educational and scientific society established for the increase and diffusion of geographic knowledge.

NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC PHOTOGRAPHER VOLKMAR WENTZEL

The 19th century saw State after State carved out of the West. In 1861, 34 stars crowned Old Glory, but they were divided against each other, symbols of the irrepressible conflict to come. It came on April 12, 1861, and when it was over, two more stars had been added to the flag—that of Nevada, and that of West Virginia which had broken with the Virginia secessionists and remained with the Union through the Civil War.

Railroads pulled the center of population ever west, and by the end of the century nine more stars on the flag recorded the expansion. This 45-star version is the one "nailed" to the North Pole by Admiral Robert E. Peary. His patched banner now hangs in Explorers Hall, in the Washington, D. C., headquarters of the National Geographic Society.

JOE ROSENTHAL

Oklahoma in 1907, New Mexico and Arizona in 1912 ended the West's last roundup, bringing the number of States to 48.

The 48-star ensign led American doughboys through France in 1917. Marines planted it on Mount Suribachi in the fight for Iwo Jima in World War II, left. G.I.'s in Korea followed it.

It witnessed the dawn of the Atomic Age and the first probes into space.

Although short-lived, the 49-star flag has already seen the world change. Hanging beside the Russian Hammer and Sickle, it has seen a new era of diplomacy open as Russian and American leaders exchanged visits. Possibly it, or its successor, may someday fly from the moon. L.B.

UMI

PAINTING BY DE THULESTRUP, COURTESY LOUISIANA HISTORICAL SOCIETY

STAR-SPANGLED Banner of the United States rises over the Place d'Armes, New Orleans, as the French flag comes down. Thus on December 20, 1803, the United States took possession of the Louisiana Territory. The purchase nearly doubled the Nation in size and opened to settlement a continent of fantastic wealth and opportunity. In time, 17 new stars on the flag recorded the emergence of 17 new States, all or partially within the territory.

The 15-star, 15-stripe flag in the picture represented the addition of Vermont and Kentucky to the 13 original States. As more States joined, the problem of stripes overrunning the flag turned up. In 1818 the flag returned to its original 13 stripes.

after the Revolution, marching instead with State, regimental, and other banners.

By 1790, American merchantmen flew the emblem around the world. It was a familiar sight in the world's farthest ports, as Chinese tea and East Indian spices were hauled aboard ships bound for Boston.

Then in 1791 and 1792, Vermont and Kentucky joined the 13 original States and Congress faced a dilemma: what to do about the flag. Finally, a star and a stripe for each State were added, and the 15-star, 15-stripe Star-Spangled Banner which inspired Francis Scott Key was born. Below, the tattered remains of the original 42-by-30-foot flag that flew stubbornly over Baltimore's Fort McHenry thrills young and old in the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.

By 1818 a human tide had rolled west to settle new land. The number of States jumped to 20. Again the question—how to make the flag representative? On April 4, 1818, Congress passed the third—and last—major flag act. It ordered a permanent return to 13 stripes, requiring that they be horizontal. It also specified that a new star be added to the blue field on the Fourth of July following the entrance of any State into the Union. The bill did not specify a star arrangement.

There were 28 stars by 1846. At the end of the Mexican War (touched off by the annexation of Texas as a State) the Red, White, and Blue stretched across the Southwest to the Pacific. In 1853, Commodore Matthew C. Perry cracked Japan's closed door and persuaded the Japanese to sign a treaty of friendship and commerce. His 31-star flag, preserved at the Naval Academy Museum, flew aboard the *Missouri* when Japan surrendered after World War II.

about 73 degrees, but at times it will rise to 83. Then we go swimming in the lakes and ponds.

In early December, the temperature will go down to zero at night, or even a little lower.

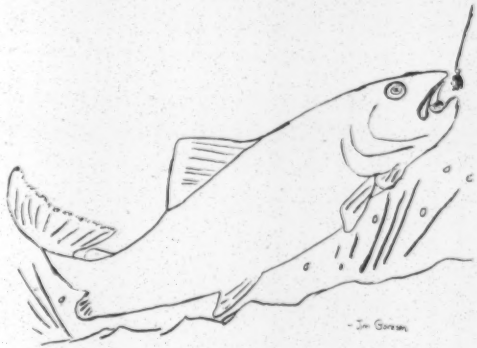
It has been known to reach 20 below zero, but not often. This winter there was not enough freezing weather to keep the ponds and ice rinks frozen hard enough for skating.

In midsummer, Seward has 22 hours of daylight. It gets light about 1 o'clock in the morning—and the sun goes behind the mountain around 9:30 in the evening.

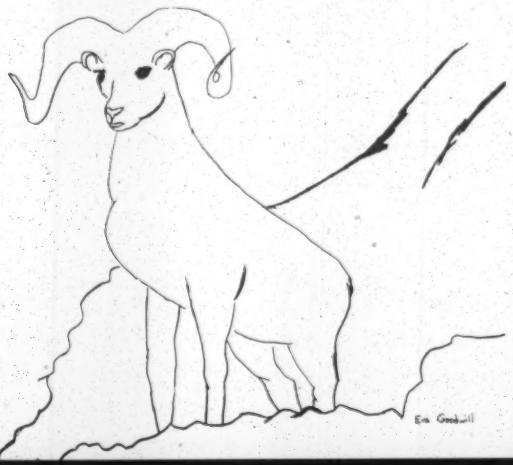
The sun comes over the mountains in the southeast at 9:40 a.m. in midwinter, and disappears behind the western hills at 3 o'clock. We go to school and home again in the dark.

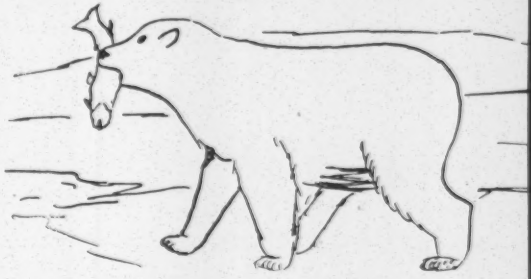
Many of the men make their living at fishing. We fish for Kings, red, dog, humps, and silver—these are all different kinds of salmon. Kings (below) will weigh as much as 85 pounds. Biggest silver caught in Seward's annual derby wins the lucky fisherman a new car.

There are hundreds of little animals to hunt for. But the best hunting is for moose,



caribou, deer, bear, etc. (left, the rare Dall mountain sheep). One time my little dog was teasing a moose in my back yard and the moose charged at him. The moose almost got him, but finally headed back for the woods.

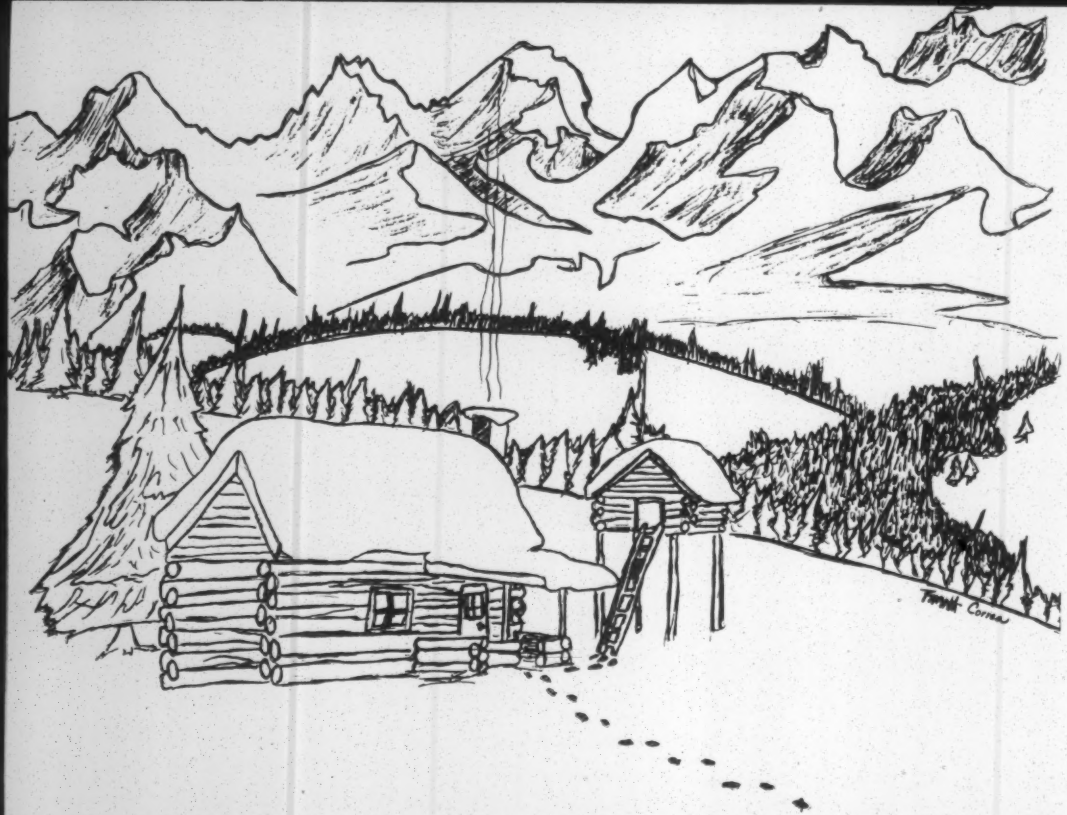




Big game includes black bear, brown bear, grizzly bear, and the great Kodiak bear, the largest carnivorous animal on the continent. These are not hunted with the camera. One needs the protection of a high-powered rifle and a good marksman in order to be safe while snapping pictures.

Seward Honors Alaska's Buyer

Seward, a city of 3,000 people, stands on Alaska's south coast about halfway between the northern end of the "panhandle" and the base of the peninsula that starts the Aleutian Island Chain. It is named for William H. Seward, who, as Secretary of State, purchased Alaska ("Seward's Icebox") from the Russians in 1867. Seward was mocked for wasting the taxpayers' money, but each year the new State produces in gold alone more than the $7,200,000 purchase price.



DRAWINGS AND TEXT ADAPTED FROM A BOOKLET, "SEWARD, THE PLAYGROUND OF ALASKA," PUBLISHED BY THE BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S CLUB OF SEWARD

Seward, Alaska, Through Young Eyes

WHAT IS IT LIKE to live in Alaska? The sixth, seventh, and eighth graders of Seward describe it in these words and drawings.

Some people have an idea that the place is all cluttered up with totem poles. This is not true.

We live in homes just like you. They are wooden frame houses with shingles or painted siding, asbestos shingle, or stucco. There are no brick houses in Seward, but some are made of concrete block. There are also some log houses, and, in the country, some log cabins (left).

We have electric washers and dishwashers, electric clothes dryers, vacuum cleaners—in fact, all appliances that you have.

Our basketball team travels by airplane to Fairbanks and other distant places. We charter a plane to take everybody at once, also the pep squad, which is girls.

Strawberries grow wild and also in gardens. They are very sweet. Raspberries also grow wild. They are as big as the first joint of your thumb, sweet and dark red. There is a big crab apple tree in Seward that bears fruit almost every year, but it is in somebody's yard.

Seward is warmed in the wintertime by an ocean current. The summers are not very hot, the usual temperature being

sketchy and I had to try to keep one lesson ahead of them—not the first teacher to resort to such a practice, I assume.

I taught the first and second grades in the morning, and took over the third and fourth in the afternoon.

The children got along well together, despite complete differences in background. There were a few slight problems of differing nationalities. I remember one Asian being hurt by the taunt "slant eyes", flung at him by an older boy. A word to the parents erased that nickname, and the children became friends. Skin color set the children apart at first, but soon they ignored it.

I know there were gaps in the education we were able to give these children. However, since I have returned to the United States, I have met several of my old pupils. They have been able to keep up with their more conventionally educated classmates —and, in some cases, find themselves ahead.

One experience with the Russians stands out in my mind. Like so many youngsters, ours were fascinated by dinosaurs. We had but one copy of one book on the subject, written by Roy Chapman Andrews. It was heavily used, and although a little dog-eared, it became one of our most prized possessions. We managed to arrange a trip to a Russian paleontological museum. The museum, usually closed to the public, was opened specially for us. The director and his staff greeted us, and showed us models and fossils of dinosaurs.

The children were amazed and delighted to discover that the director had been with Dr. Andrews on an expedition into the Gobi desert, but had never seen a copy of the book. By common consent, they decided to present him with our precious copy. Touched, the director gave our school 200 photographs of paintings of dinosaurs, labeled for classroom use.

In late December, the embassy children were invited to the "Grandfather Frost" parties held in the Supreme Soviet Building inside the Kremlin. Among perhaps 1,000 Russian children, we saw dancers from the Bolshoi School dance group perform a charming winter ballet around a huge tree hung with shining balls. There was another ballet about three bears. Then came "Grandfather Frost"—the living image of Santa Claus, except that his suit was white. Russian children grabbed the Americans and danced them around the tree to Russian folk tunes.

Each child received a tin box of oranges, apples, cookies, and candy. Ice cream and soft drinks were served, and we rode a merry-go-round before driving home.

BETTE LEWIS

At the same time, we were preparing for our own Christmas pageant, an annual bright spot in the school year, (left). We had more realistic casting, I believe, than any other Christmas pageant I've heard of. We could cast several Israelis in key parts. When the script called for three wise men to come out of the East, well, our three wise men *were* Orientals, coming from Thailand, Indonesia, and Turkey.

UMI

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK, 1959, finds many American students and teachers working on foreign soil. In observance of this fact, and of the week itself, the *Geographic School Bulletins* presents the experiences of one such teacher—Miss Bette Lewis (below), who taught at the Anglo-American School in Moscow for two years. Before her assignment in Russia, she taught in the public schools of Beverley, Massachusetts, and Beauvoir School in Washington, D. C.

I TAUGHT IN MOSCOW

By Bette Lewis

TEACHING AT THE Anglo-American School in Moscow is like handling the United Nations in a one-room schoolhouse.

It was very stimulating—but plagued with so many problems that I didn't realize how rewarding it had been until after I left the country.

For one thing, our school didn't officially exist. The Russians never recognized us. For example, although I was teacher and in effect principal of the school, my visa identified me as social secretary to the Ambassador's wife.

Because there were none for sale we were unable to purchase such simple things as chalk or paint at the local stores. Our supplies came from London, Helsinki, or West Berlin—wherever helpful embassy personnel happened to be going.

Our students—about 80 all told—came from almost every non-Communist country. We had British and Canadians, of course, and Finns, Iranians, Afghans, Israelis, North Africans, Indonesians, Thais, French, Turks, Ethiopians, and Japanese. All were children of diplomatic families. All had to pass a basic English test before they were enrolled.

FRANK BOURGHOLTZER
Author strolls Russian lane

Ranging from 4 to 15 years old, the children had a rather difficult life in Moscow. The setting was artificial; their play was confined to the embassy grounds. I remember when Ambassador Thompson's 8-year-old daughter was forbidden to play with Russians in the park. She had been enjoying bicycles and jump rope with her young Russian playmates. Then she started bringing her friends into her home, as she would have done with friends in America. The Russians didn't like it.

In all school matters, we simply had to cut our babushka to fit our cloth. We taught the basic subjects, and hunted around for extras. Often we could find volunteer help among the wives of embassy staff members. At times, talented artists were available, and we had a fine art course.

Later, we lucked into another find—a musician. Then we had singing lessons and a choir. For the older children, I taught Russian—although my knowledge was

HORACE BRISTOL, SR.; BELOW, W. ROBERT MOORE, NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC STAFF

Rice is also grown in Texas, California, Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Missouri. American rice cultivation, however, little resembles that of Asia. Here tractors cultivate, steam pumps irrigate, and airplanes sow the seed. The American rice farmer may plant as many as 1,000 acres. Yet the United States produces only about one per cent of the world's more than 400,000,000,000 pounds. Twenty countries of Asia produce about 92 per cent. The Asian farmer still depends on a wooden plow and water buffalo. He hand-digs canals for irrigation, and he sows by hand. His plot of ground may be no larger than a table top.

The back-breaking work of rice cultivation in the Far East begins in nursery beds where the plant is grown to the height of about one foot. It is then uprooted (right) and transplanted to fields which have been flooded and worked into a deep porridge of mud. Because of smallness of the fields and the continued wetness of the soil, practically all the grain is harvested by hand with sickles.

Threshing is usually done either with small hand machines beating the grain against the inside of large baskets or by driving oxen or water buffaloes over piles of rice heads. Hand and foot pounders husk and polish the rice.

Rice has been the chief southern Asian food for ages. The Indians are believed to have been the first rice eaters. As early as 2800 B.C., a ceremony of the first

UMI

RICE

HORACE BRISTOL, SR.

PLODDING through the mud, a Formosan cultivates his rice paddy as his ancestors have done for centuries. A common scene, it is repeated (with variations) across Asia, Africa, and in many other parts of the world. So important is this crop in the minds and hearts of those who depend on it that rice has become a central part of many peoples' culture and religion.

A Yao tribesman in northern Thailand lies sick with fever on his dirt floor. A witch doctor mutters prayers as he ceremonially passes his hands over altar offerings of rice and rice wine.

In a Japanese village girls in ceremonial robes plant long rows in a freshly-blessed field. It is the 88th day of the year, the day for planting the first rice crop, and the most important in the year to the Japanese farmer. He marks it with elaborate ritual: the ground must be broken with new hoes, a branch from a sakaki tree must be planted, even the dried herring fertilizer must be blessed.

The Balinese take rice offerings to the temples of their gods. Indians traditionally give it as a wedding gift. In many Asian languages the word for rice is the same as the word for food.

Rice *is* the food of much of Asia. The success or failure of the crop often spells life or death for a quarter of the world's population. Three million people died in 1943 when the rice crop failed in only one province of India. Always within easy reach of starvation, Asia has few reserves for emergencies, and poor transportation facilities for shipping food to stricken areas.

Rice has been used as a weapon in the cold war. At the cost of letting some of its own people go hungry, Red China has attempted to export rice and undersell Burma and Thailand, both friendly to the West, in the big Japanese and Indian markets.

Rice farming is the main occupation of "Monsoon Asia"—a belt of countries stretching 4,000 miles from India to Japan. Below, a woman on Formosa rakes the grain so it will dry evenly. In the background, her husband plows for a new crop.

DORIAN LEIGH, LTD.

WHERE RICE IS THE TOP crop: In Assam, India, left, Lhota Naga women, shielded from the monsoon rains by rain boards, weed fields of the precious grain. Below, rice helps marry a Bagobo couple on Mindanao, Philippine Islands. The bride and groom exchange a bit of rice, then bump their heads together, and the wedding is complete. Thus rice is important to the hearts and souls—as well as the stomachs—of peoples dependent on it.

planting was performed in China. For centuries, heavy barges filled with tribute rice sailed up China's Grand Canal to the Imperial Court at Peiping. In southeastern China today, rice makes up three-fourths of the diet, and an individual may eat as much as 450 pounds a year. In Japan, land rentals and incomes of feudal lords were paid in rice.

With an exploding population, Asia needs more rice all the time. Far Eastern countries are investing in agricultural research, reclaiming land, and developing scientific farming to increase and improve the crop. Artificial rice—grains factory-made of tapioca and peanut flour, wheat flour, and barley, or wheat flour, starch, water, and powdered rice—have been introduced.

Progress can come only gradually where planting habits have been entrenched for thousands of years, where farm plots are too boggy or too small for modern machinery, where thousands of farmers still apologize to the rice god for cutting the crop.

L.B.

WILLARD PRICE

UMI